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ABSTRACT

Brief analyses are provided of presentations made at a conference, held at the University of Central Florida in Orlando, which addressed questions and answers relating to research and education. Conference sessions explored the role of research in relation to educational practices with special focus on theory, research, issues and application. Papers presented at the conference include: (1) "The Florida PREP Concept: Idea and Implementation" (A. Jeanne Miller); (2) "The Moral Dimension of Student Behavior" (Sharon Lee Hiett); (3) "Helping Low Achievers Achieve" (Rodman Webb, Patricia Ashton); (4) "Up the Mainstream--With/Without a Paddle" (Martha Lue, Jeanice Midgett, Judy Olson); (5) "Children's Views on Two Sides of an Ocean: Alike or Different?" (Jeanice Midgett, Delorys Blume); (6) "Interdisciplinary Writing Research: A Survey" (Nancy R. McGee); and (7) "Does Competition Destroy Self-Concept?" (Virginia Barr-Johnson, Tina Erwin). (JD)

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ANSWERING QUESTIONS AND QUESTIONING ANSWERS

PART II

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F.E.R.D.C. NOTES ON THIS EDITION

This bulletin is the second series of bulletins produced by F.E.R.D.C. in which the conference proceedings held at one of the nine state universities constitutes the content.

The theme of the conference was "Answering Questions and Questioning Answers." The host institution was the University of Central Florida in Orlando. The conference coordinator was Dr. Sharon Hiett. F.E.R.D.C. wishes to express its appreciation to Dr. Hiett and all those who contributed to the success of the conference, especially those who presented papers which appear in this bulletin.

The proceedings will be printed in two parts, Volume 16, Number 1, and Volume 16, Number 2.

These research bulletins, published as conference papers, represent F.E.R.D.C.'s attempt to serve its member districts and the profession by bringing a variety of research and development information into the schools to be available at minimum cost to the education practitioner.

The constant goal of the organization is to strengthen the bond between school districts and colleges of education for the purpose of providing better education for children and adults.

Charlie T. Council
Executive Secretary

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Tribute

This bulletin and the Conference ANSWERING QUESTIONS AND QUESTIONING ANSWERS are dedicated to the memory of Dr. William E. Breivogel. Dr. Breivogel was an Associate Professor of Education at the University of Florida and former Executive Secretary of the Florida Research and Development Council for over a decade. His work and memory will be with us always.

Preface

University of Central Florida Conference

Answering Questions and Questioning Answers

The Florida Educational Research and Development Council and the College of Education of the University of Central Florida collaborated in presenting a most successful conference which addressed questions and answers relating to research and education.

The conference brought together researchers and practitioners from all educational levels. The format consisted of sessions which were designed to explore the role of research in relation to educational practices with special focus on theory, research, issues and application. It was clearly evident that all participants, including classroom teachers, school and county administrators and teacher educators benefited professionally from personal interaction and from the formal presentations. This bulletin is designed to provide a succinct analysis of the presentations made and should prove to be an excellent reference for professionals interested in research and education.

Dean C. C. Miller
College of Education
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The Florida PREP Concept: Idea and Implementation

A. Jeanne Miller
University of Central Florida

For the past several years, the Florida Legislature has been concentrating on achieving accountability within the public school system. A major effort in this direction was the development of basic skills tests-grades 3, 5, 8, 11 and the 11th grade functional literacy test. The purpose of these measures was to remediate deficiencies discovered with testing. These, of course, are considered after-the-fact strategies, for they help to discover the weaknesses that an individual has developed.

In search for alternatives, the 1979 Florida Legislature passed a law that was designed to help school districts attain accountability through *PREVENTION* rather than *CURE*.

The idea of this legislation was to provide resources and a stimulus in the early school years. The total plan was designed to develop and implement individualized instructional programs to assure that each child entering fourth grade had been provided the learning tools necessary for the greatest likelihood of success possible. Again, the plan was to deliver the best professional education possible in the early formative years, thus reducing the need for testing and remediation later on.

This plan, designed for K-3 children, some consider to be the most *positive* result of the entire competency testing movement to this point. Implementing this idea, especially the early detection of potential learning problems, was what motivated the development and passage of the FLORIDA PRIMARY EDUCATION PROGRAM, now known as PREP. The Speaker of the House, J. Hyatt Brown, and Walter C. Young, Chairman of the House Committee on Education-K-12, were largely responsible for the passage into law plus $23 million extra monies for implementation.

The purpose of the PREP bill was to provide a program that meets the individual needs of all primary children. The bill was designed to build on the Early Childhood and Basic Skills Development Program required by 230.2311 FS, 1974. The legislative intent was to provide an adequate level of services for children in kindergarten through grade 3 so that existing and potential problems are identified and to meet individual needs of students prior to the intermediate grades. This would reduce the risk of failure and the need for remediation in intermediate and secondary level years. In the fall of 1978, Mr. Brown and Dr. Young appointed a legislative staff with educational expertise to develop the legislation. Then an advisory committee was appointed, made up of various persons with interest and expertise related to young children and their problems. The advisory group made recommendations to the legislative staff. Then a special task force, with Patricia H. Eyster, Chairperson, was appointed which represented professionals who work with young children.

The legislation's staff continue *to research and gather information in forty-nine states;* however, only California had legislated a major program emphasizing K-3. Because of considerations such as the multi-ethnic populus, both rural and urban districts, and because there were already plans in some districts, latitude was allowed in the PREP model. This latitude also allowed for innovation and decision-making at the local level. In some cases, the PREP model may even be replaced by an alternative plan devised by a district--with state approval, of course. The final version of the bill finally became law on July 1, 1979, when it was signed by the Governor.

The major objectives were to assure that each student shall have an *individualized* program to permit the development to his/her maximum potential *and* to help ensure that *all* children completing third grade will have achieved competency in the basic skills. The model defines several strategies to be followed.

A. *The Preventative Strategies* involve the use of those instructional strategies which shall serve a student with identified or potential learning problems which are considered correctable.

B. *The Developmental Strategies* are those instructional strategies

which shall serve a student appearing to be developing emotionally, mentally, socially and educationally at his expected potentiality.

C. *The Enrichment Strategies* involve the use of those instructional strategies which shall serve a promising learner, defined as one who can emotionally, socially, mentally, and educationally accept exceptional challenges and who has demonstrated proclivities toward creativity and would most likely benefit from additional query or investigative activities.

D. *Primary Specialist* is a new personnel classification established by law with required competencies. The primary specialist must be a teacher, therefore, cannot be used in an administrative role.

The PREP Model outlines the six steps as well as the decisions concerned with the screening and proper placement of students.

PREP MODEL

Step 1. Design of Individual Strategies
Step 2. Screening of all K-3 Students on Initial Entrance

- Identification and assignment of K-3 students eligible for receiving developmental strategies
- Further assessment of K-3 students not eligible for receiving developmental strategies
  - Identification and assignment of students eligible for preventative strategies
  - Identification and assignment of students eligible for receiving enrichment
  - Identification and assignment of students eligible for exceptional student education
    - Identification and assignment of students eligible for exceptional student education
    - Further assessment of students evaluated for exceptional student education
      - Identification and assignment of students eligible to receive preventative strategies
      - Identification and assignment of students eligible to receive enrichment

Step 3: Adjustment of Implementation of ALL Strategies
Step 4: Assessment of Effectiveness of Individual Strategies
Step 5: Evaluation of Redesign of Individual Strategies
Step 6: Reassessment and Reassignment of Students Indicated

By March 1, 1980, each school board in each of the Florida school districts was required to provide a PREP program or an approved alternative plan.

Either the PREP or the alternative plan must provide the following:

1. A screening program for all K-3 students prior to the end of the eighth week in school.

2. Procedures where students will:

   a) receive developmental individual strategies or
   b) be referred for exceptional student education evaluations or
   c) be recommended for further assessment for preventative or enrichment strategies.

3. *Procedures and Criteria for Identification and Assignment* of the preventative or enrichment must be stipulated

4. *Procedures for Additional Assessment* for students whose screening results indicate the *need. (Criteria* for need indicated.)

Then a student will be eligible for promotion from the third grade upon satisfactory attainment of the minimum performance standards. At the end of grade three, three alternatives are provided for each student.

1. First, if the student meets the requirements, he/she will be promoted to the fourth grade.

2. Secondly, a student will continue the program for no more than one year in order to meet the specific standards, if not met, the student will progress according to the district plan.

3. The third alternative will be that the student will be referred to exceptional student education, if the need is indicated.

This law also provides for health screening services and related referrals and follow-ups which are to be provided by the Department of Health & Rehabilitative Services. Therefore, screening services, referrals, and follow-ups are to be made available to school districts.

These procedures include:

1. A standard student information records system for each student's cumulative record. This record includes: basic health data, screening services and results, referrals and follow-ups, as well as educational decisions made as a result.

2. Collection and reporting of the student information on a school-level aggregate basis for use by school personnel-on a school/district basis/state.

3. Incorporation of district and aggregate data in a report prepared by the Commissioner of Education, February, 1981, and annually thereafter to the House of Representatives and Senate.

The law also *provides* that *staff development programs* must be implemented by each district to enable K-3 staff to be aware, understand and meet the individual needs of students.

The training provided is for teachers, administrators, support personnel, aides, and volunteers.

In addition, this legislation established required competencies for a new personnel classification, *THE PRIMARY SPECIALIST*, who must be a teacher and cannot be used in an administrative role.

The law required that preservice education programs be developed *before* PREP approval.

The law created a Primary Education Council of fifteen members with a three-year term. Their purpose was to oversee K-3 programs in public schools.

The duties of the Council include the following:

1. Criteria for plan approval (district)
2. Renew and approve plans
3. Prepare annual report
4. Conduct at least two statewide conferences on early childhood
5. Report to the Legislature by March 1 each year.

Finally, each district in Florida was required to have a PREP program or an alternative approved and fully operative by the beginning of the school year 1981-1982. The following is a collection of often-asked questions, subdivided into PREP questions and instructional strategies questions.

PREP Questions and Answers

1. What does the PREP Act mean by "screening?"

There are two areas.

a) Health Screening- vision, hearing, nutrition, mental health, etc.
b) Educational Screening- teacher observation of academic and behavioral performance; also, screening instruments for: prereading readiness, precomputational skills, auditory discrimination, visual perception, auditory perception, kinesthetic skills, motor skills, etc.

2. WHO should be screened?

Each child within eight weeks of initial school entrance.

3. WHO is responsible for screening?

All K-3 teachers with the assistance of health personnel, principal, primary specialist, psychologist, reading specialist, exceptional education specialist, and bilingual specialist.

4. Is there a difference between screening and assessment instruments? YES

Screening Instruments- have the purpose of quickly separating those who may have learning problems or may be in need of enrichment activities and will need further assessment.

Assessment Instruments- (Administered upon recommendation of teacher, primary specialist, and approved by principal.) Provides more extensive information about the child's strengths and weaknesses.

5. Which students should be referred for exceptional educational evaluations?

a) If the child is performing one and one-half grades or more above or below grade placement.
b) If the child scored in the upper or lower decile on standardized tests.
c) If teacher observation indicates need.
d) If teacher observation, according to a standardized checklist of behavioral characteristics, indicates.

6. What are the legal requirements for parental permission for testing children?

Written permission is required for health or exceptional education. A testing program given to all children at grade level does *not* require permission.

Instructional Strategies

1. Does the Act require "tracking" of students? NO.

"Preventative strategies" may be assigned a student in one area and "developmental" or "enrichment strategies" may be assigned the same student in other areas of instruction.

2. Will strategies be assigned for the entire year? NO.

Identification and assignment will be flexible.

3. What areas will be considered in assigning "preventative" and "enrichment strategies?"

a) Rate of mental development
b) Achievement in basic skills
c) Information processing ability
d) Visual-motor perception ability
e) Behavioral and social adjustment

4. What criteria are to be considered in assigning "preventative strategies?"

a) Below grade level performance
b) Scoring in the lowest quartile on tests
c) Teacher observation of performance on tasks
d) Teacher observation and social and behavioral adjustment

5. Must an instructional plan be written for "preventative strategies" assignments? YES, three types of information are required.

a) Statement of the nature of the identified correctable problem or potential problem.
b) Specific educational strategies to be used
c) The length of time projected before redesigning the student's program.

6. What happens if a student does not respond?

Further *assessment* is made by the school staffing committee, and a *report* becomes part of the student's record and *recommendations* are made for different strategies.

7. What criteria is considered in assigning "enrichment strategies?"

a) Performance at grade level
b) Score in top quartile of tests
c) Teacher observation of performance on assigned tasks
d) Teacher observation of social and behavioral adjustment

8. What happens if the student does not respond?

   a) Assignment of different strategies
   b) Referral to principal as a suspected exceptional student who needs evaluation

9. How are student activities for strategies determined?

The classroom teacher determines the activities and utilizes, when appropriate, the services of all resources available including the child, the primary specialist, the parents, etc.

PREP Implementation

In 1979, the Florida Legislature authorized 22,960,000 in categorical funds for PREP. Then in 1980, the Florida Legislature authorized 48,500,000 in categorical funds for PREP.

This report summarizes the results of major PREP activities conducted between July 1, 1980 and June 30, 1981. Data provided are based on responses by all sixty-seven school districts at the end of the second year of implementation. The report reflects a partial implementation of PREP since school year 1981-1982 was designated by the Legislature as the first year for full implementation.

Screening

All of the sixty-seven districts participated in educational and health screening activities. As a result of the screening in the districts, the following were the outcomes:

1. Increased cooperation between school district and county health unit staffs.
2. Greatly expanded knowledge by teachers of the effects of health problems on children's learning.
3. Enlarged parental involvement and understanding.

The following concerns were also a result of the screening activities:

1. Increased paperwork based on health screening, referrals, and follow-ups caused concern statewide.
2. Teachers used health data, but felt that the time required for reporting was excessive.

In 1980-1981, a total of 202,839 students in Florida were screened. Some of the districts felt they had special needs in some areas. The screening programs reflected some of the district variances.

1. Orange and Polk Counties tested children in English or Spanish.
2. Fifty-eight districts used parents and community volunteers to assist in screening.
3. Team approach used in all districts.
4. Broward County screened on Saturday so that parents could accompany their children.
5. Palm Beach County used a holistic approach.

Assessment

Assessment activities were conducted by sixty-six districts for those students who performed very well or very poorly. Of the 20,617 total, 86% or 143,885 students were determined to need assessment based on screening. Fourteen percent of these were *not* assessed.

Following are the reasons stated for lack of assessment of so many students:

1. Student withdrew from district.
2. The assessment instruments were unsatisfactory.
3. The referrals were made to exceptional student education.
4. The need for assessment was determined too late in the school year.

The outcomes of the assessment phase were very positive.

1. Increased coordination and cooperation among staff at individual schools.

2. Identification of students in need of enrichment strategies discovered.
3. Increased information about students for use in designing instructional programs.
4. Reduction in paperwork for students assessed over procedures used previously.

Instructional Program

All of the sixty-seven districts reported implementing a PREP diagnostic/prescriptive instructional design.

Even the students who were assigned preventative strategies during the last forty-five days of school were given the opportunity to attend summer school in most districts.

Criteria were developed and implemented for assignment of instructional strategies in *all* districts except LIBERTY.

Reassignment of instructional strategies were developed and implemented in all districts except *DIXIE* and *LIBERTY* and *VOLUSIA*. *LIBERTY* County did not provide students a combination of instructional strategies. *CHARLOTTE, SANTA ROSA*, and *VOLUSIA did not report* if they used a variety of instructional strategies.

The major activities cited by districts that were directed at improving instruction and student learning were:

1. Development of individual plans for students assigned preventative strategies.
2. Use of test scores and other data to assign instructional strategies.
3. Provision of periodic staff meetings to evaluate the progress of individual learners.
4. provision of a variety of strategies including peer tutoring and learning centers.
5. Use of primary specialists to help teachers and students.
6. Development, use and revision of management systems and materials.

7. Provision of Gesell Institute training and certification of teachers to administer the Gesell School Readiness Test.
8. Reduction of class size by adding paid personnel to classes resulted in better monitoring of student progress and increased services to teachers.

The test results show some trends:

1. All reporting districts had *increased* test results since PREP.
2. A gain in performance was shown in 64.3% of the districts during the one-year 1979-1980 period. No gain was shown by 11.9% of the districts. Some loss was shown by 23.8% of the districts.
3. Some districts cited increased paperwork, lack of physical facilities · labeling of children as inhibiting factors for program success.
4. *Overall* districts reported *positive* outcomes in their instructional programs.

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The Moral Dimension of Student Behavior

Sharon Lee Hiett
University of Central Florida

This paper addressed three aspects of the relationship of moral development to student behavior—a brief history of investigations on the subject, the findings of this researcher in one study of moral judgments of disruptive and nondisruptive students in school, and a survey of some current and ongoing research on moral education programs. Much of the current research is still unpublished, but preliminary findings have been presented at conferences such as the International Conference on Morality held in Miami Beach in December, 1981. The work summarized draws primarily from the cognitive-developmental framework developed by Kohlberg and his colleagues over the past two decades.

Early Investigations of Moral Development

Early studies of the moral development of children usually were designed from a psychoanalytic or behavioral theoretical framework. Processes such as imitation, parent identification and modeling, and rewards and punishments as motivators of moral character were the focus of study. The most ambitious early study was that carried out by Hartshorne and May in the late 1920's on character development and education, in which character was defined as a set of culturally defined virtues such as honesty, service, and self-control which were translated into measurable habits or traits. Religious education programs, Boy Scouts and other training situations were examined as influences on moral behavior, and the children in the study were exposed to temptation situations, such as temptation to cheat on a task, to determine patterns of influences. The researchers concluded that moral behavior was mainly situational; all children, they found, were tempted in some situations, but not in others, and the training influences to which they had been exposed yielded no clear pattern of influence (Hartshorne and May, 1928-30; 1971). Kohlberg later referred to this research and its conclusions as a "bag of virtues" approach to moral development.

In the 1940's and 1950's Havighurst and his colleagues (Peck and Havighurst, 1960) studied character development in much the same way, and predictably found that parents were the primary influences of moral behavior, with friends, teachers, institutions, and the media as less significant influences. Like the Hartshorne and May studies, these investigations of moral character suggested situational rather than developmental factors as the strongest influences of behavior, primarily because of the design and focus of the study. Neither of these investigations provided any real understanding of the moral reasoning processes typical for children at various stages of development.

The work of Dewey (1909) and Piaget (1932) during the early part of this century laid the groundwork for what is now a third theoretical perspective for considering the development of moral character. This cognitive-developmental framework is suggested by Dewey in *Moral Principles in Education* (1909), in his statement that

> The moral has been conceived it too goody-goody a way. Ultimate moral motives and forces are nothing more or less than social intelligence—the power of serving and comprehending social situations—and social power—trained capacities of control—at work in the service of social interest and aims. (p. 43)

and by Piaget in *The Moral Judgment of the Child* (1932), when he comments on the development nature of morality that

> There seems to exist *in the child* two separate moralities—moral constraint of the adult, a constraint which leads to heteronomy and consequently to moral realism. The second is cooperation which leads to autonomy. Between the two can be discerned a phase during which rules and commands are interiorized and generalized. (pp. 194-195) (emphasis added)

These theoretical viewpoints have also been termed "interactionist," differentiating them from either the behavioral or psychoanalytic schools and stressing the simultaneous importance of inner and outer

forces on moral development. Piaget differentiated the moral perspective of the child which he called the "morality of duty" ("right is to obey the will of the adult") from the more mature second morality (autonomy) which appears "when the mind regards as necessary an ideal that is independent of all external pressure" (Piaget, 1932, pp. 195-196). Piaget saw role-taking and perspective-taking on the part of the developing child as major ways that this movement from egocentrism to perspectivism in the moral realm occurred.

Beginning in the mid-1950's and published first in his doctoral dissertation of 1958, Kohlberg's work extended and developed Dewey's early moral education work and Piaget's structuralist model of moral development to produce his own series of moral development stages. Divided into three levels of development, Preconventional, Conventional, and Postconventional, Kohlberg (1981) has recently summarized the two stages at each level as follows:

Stage 1. Punishment and obedience
Stage 2. Instrumental exchange
Stage 3. Interpersonal conformity
Stage 4. Social system and conscience maintenance
Stage 5. Prior rights and social contract
Stage 6. Universal ethical principles (p xxviii)

In his early study of 10, 13, and 16 year old boys, in his later cross-cultural studies, and in the longitudinal follow-up of his original subjects, Kohlberg has continued to refine his model. A stage theory of moral development has the characteristics of predictable sequence, upward movement, and qualitative rather than just quantitative change with age. Kohlberg's (1976) stage theory assumptions are that 1) moral development has a cognitive-structural or moral judgment component; 2) the basic motivation for moral behavior is the motivation for acceptance, competence, self esteem or self realization rather than the meeting of biological needs or reduction of anxiety or fear; 3) the major aspects of moral development are culturally universal; 4) basic moral norms and principles are *structures* arising through experiences of rules existing outside the person, and interaction of the individual with others from the basis of stage structure; and 5) environmental influences on moral

development are more the result of general quality and extent of cognitive and social stimulation throughout the individual's development than specific experiences with parents or specific discipline methods, rewards and punishments (p. 41). The primary mode of stage development in this model is "role-taking," which involves both cognitive and affective aspects and is not merely sympathy or empathy for another. In moral development, the individual increasingly refines his understanding of the place of himself and others in the world.

The major methodology of measuring moral development in Kohlberg's model is the open-ended interview, an approach which Piaget called a clinical approach. In the interview, hypothetical moral dilemmas are presented to the subject, and his responses are categorized according to the levels and stages of moral development. The most frequently quoted example of a moral dilemma is "Heinz's Dilemma" in which a man whose wife is dying of a terminal disease is desperate to obtain a life-saving drug for which the druggist is charging an exorbitant amount in order to obtain personal profit. When all his efforts to buy the drug fail, Heinz considers stealing it to save his wife. The questions to which the subject responds probe the reasons for stealing or not stealing the drug, including issues of life, law and property. Kohlberg describes moral judgment as a primary element but not a guarantee of moral behavior; a person can reason in terms of high principles and then fail to live up to them. The probability of more morally mature action increases with stage of development, however. According to Kohlberg, moral judgment is not synonymous with moral behavior, but it is the "single most important or influential factor yet discovered in moral behavior" (1975, p. 672).

In his original 1958 study, Kohlberg compared delinquent youths with those in his sample. The 23 delinquent youths were found to be significantly different in level or moral development, and Kohlberg noted that the delinquents were reasoning like 10-year olds despite the fact they were 16 or older (Kohlberg & Freundlich, Undated paper). He concluded that the delinquents were retarded in moral maturity, did not develop as much in the 12-20 age period as nondelinquents, and delinquents used preconventional (Stages 1 and 2) reasoning more than nondelinquents. Nondelinquents more often

used conventional moral reasoning. Although Kohlberg did not feel that preconventional moral judgment was the cause of delinquent behavior, he did state that conventional moral judgment seemed to be a major condition for avoidance of delinquent action. The higher an individual's moral stage, according to Kohlberg, the more he could "resist situational forces toward behavior inconsistent with his moral judgment structures" (Kohlberg and Freundlich, Undated paper, p. 15). He concluded that feelings of attachment and commitment to others and society kept nondelinquents from delinquent behavior.

Other research bore out Kohlberg's early finding. Studies (Fodor, 1972; Jurkovic & Prentice, 1974; Campagna & Harper, 1975) investigated family correlates of delinquents, compared psychopathic and sociopathic youngsters with control groups, and found correlations of moral reasoning levels and behavior. A 1968 study of political activists by Haan, Smith & Block showed a strong behavior/judgment relation. Specifically, the higher a subject's moral reasoning, the more likely he was to act on his convictions. In an analysis of Milgram's obedience study subjects, there was suggestive evidence of a judgment/behavior correlation; specifically, 75 percent of the post-conventional subjects quit the experiment, refusing to shock the victim, while only 13 percent of the lower stage subjects did so (Milgram, 1974). Unfortunately, there were disproportionate numbers of subjects at the various levels of development, so in this as in other studies, findings were limited.

Moral Development and Disruptive Behavior in Schools

Based on the previous research, this author undertook a study (Hiett, 1977) of moral development in disruptive school students. Most studies of behavior problem students had investigated such student characteristics as socioeconomic background, school achievement, race, sex and age as influencing agents on behavior. Other studies such as those mentioned above investigated student moral reasoning levels as a component of the behavior of delinquent or socio/psychopathic youth, but a study of the relationships of moral judgment level and behavior had not been conducted using the more typical disruptive school student as the subject. Since these students have most often been the focus of concern from parents, educators

and the general public (Gallup, 1982, and previous Gallup polls published annually since 1970 in the *Phi Delta Kappan*) and since respondents to polls have often said the schools should take on a greater share of the responsibility for moral behavior and education of youngsters, it was considered important to see whether students with higher or lower levels of moral development actually behave any differently. Only if there was evidence of difference would the sort of programs advocated by Kohlberg and his colleagues (see Wasserman, 1976) have much impact. These cognitive-developmental programs attempt to stimulate higher levels of moral judgment by discussions, role-taking opportunities and classroom simulations. In this study, teachers were included in the sample to serve as a reference group. It was assumed that teachers would have higher levels of moral maturity than either student group.

Sixty eighth grade male Caucasian students in three junior high schools in a large urban central Florida school district were the subjects. Of these, 30 were identified as disruptive by one of two criteria: 1) placement the previous year in a "behavior adjustment" class, or 2) referral by teachers on at least several occasions to the dean or guidance counselor for disruptive behavior while in school during the year the study was carried out. All students were in average or basic academic tracks. The nonproblem sample of 30 students was drawn randomly from the same three schools and from the same academic tracks. Controls for sex, race, and grade level were used so that the focus on moral maturity could be more direct. The age range of students was 13.0 to 15.1.

The following hypotheses were tested in this study: 1) Nondisruptive students will show higher levels of moral reasoning than disruptive students as measured by Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview. 2) Teachers will show higher levels of moral reasoning than eighth grade male students. 3) Demographic characteristics of age, achievement level, socioeconomic factors, and school attended in the student population will show positive relationships to moral judgment level. 4) Moral judgment levels of nondisruptive students will be closer to moral judgment levels of teachers than moral judgment levels of disruptive students are to those of teachers. 5) No relationship will be found between demographic factors—sex, race, length of teaching experience, educational level, and subject area taught—and moral judgment levels of teachers.

Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Interview: Form A (Kohlberg, Colby, Gibbs, Speicher-Dubin, & Powers, 1976) was used to determine moral judgment maturity of students and teachers. An example is given above of this open-ended, story type technique in which subjects respond to moral dilemmas telling what they think characters in the hypothetical dilemmas should do and why. The reasons subjects give for their answers, according to Kohlberg's six-stage model, rather than the content of their response, are used to assess maturity levels. For instance, two subjects might both give the content answer that it is good to follow the law. Their reasons might differ, however, one subject saying, "To stay out of trouble—to keep out of jail," and another saying, "To keep society going and avoid chaos." The maturity level of the first answer is considerably lower (Preconventional, Stage 1) on Kohlberg's scale than that in the second answer (Conventional, Stages 3 or 4).

Total moral judgment interviews were scored using a detailed manual (Kohlberg et al., 1976), and subjects were given a ranking from 100 (pure Stage 1) to 500 (pure Stage 5, the highest stage currently assessed in the scoring procedure). Interviews were carried out at the schools over a four-month period, were audio-taped and transcribed for coding, and a sample of 20 interviews was sent to the scoring center at Harvard University for interjudge reliability estimates. A correlation coefficient of. 94 for reliability was obtained for the researcher and the rater at Harvard, and this was considered satisfactory. Multiple regression analysis was used to test the student variables of group membership (disruptive or nondisruptive), age, achievement rating (average or basic), school attended, and socioeconomic status, and the teacher variables of sex, race, length of teaching experience, educational level, school taught in and subject area taught.

There was a significant difference in the moral judgment mean scores for disruptive and nondisruptive students. Nondisruptive students (Mean = 224) were significantly higher in moral judgment maturity than disruptive students (Mean = 194; $F = 15.41$, $p < .001$). None of the other variables measured distinguished significantly between disruptive and nondisruptive students. Teachers were significantly higher in moral judgment (Mean = 334) than either student group, and

their moral judgment levels were closer to that of the nondisruptive students. The F ratio for the difference between disruptive student and teacher moral judgment was 180.87 ($p<.001$) and for the difference between disruptive student and teacher moral judgment, 108.96 ($p<.001$). None of the teacher demographic variables was significantly related to their moral judgment level. Only one of the student demographic variables related significantly to moral judgment level; in the nondisruptive student group, school attended was a significant predictor of moral judgment level ($F = 6.65$, $p<.01$).

The results of this study suggest that there is an identifiable cognitive/moral component in disruptive and nondisruptive behavior in the student sample studied. That is, not only the behavior of disruptive students is different from that of nondisruptive students, but the thinking and reasoning processes they use are different. Specifically, the nondisruptive students use more mature moral reasoning processes. Their reasons given for actions in hypothetical moral dilemmas are more conventional and less self-centered than reasons given by nondisruptive students. Concerns of disruptive students most frequently centered on staying out of trouble, reciprocity, and their own welfare, while nondisruptive students included concerns for group welfare and harmony more often in their responses.

Kohlberg and his colleagues suggest that those who reason at the lowest stage—Stage 1, Punishment and Obedience Orientation—behave in acceptable ways only to avoid punishment or because they feel totally overpowered by authority figures. Thus, when the authority figures are not present and when chances of "getting away" with devious acts arise, these individuals are likely to show irresponsible or destructive behaviors. Those at the next stages of moral reasoning will behave acceptably primarily to receive direct benefits ("You scratch my back, I'll scratch yours"). When such benefits are absent, responsible behaviors are likely to diminish. Both types of thinking are Preconventional.

Only at Conventional levels (Stages 3 and 4) do individuals begin to show primary concerns for the welfare of others and for society as a whole. In this study, such concerns and reasons for moral behavior

occurred much more frequently in the responses of nondisruptive students than in those of disruptive students. Nondisruptive students were also more like their teachers in preferring these conventional reasons. It might be suggested that because they are more alike, more understanding tends to exist between teachers and their nondisruptive students; they "think alike," and therefore conflicts are fewer.

This study suggests that disruptive students need to be helped to find better and more responsible reasons for their behavior. As long as their major reasons for responsible behavior are negative ones—avoiding trouble, for instance—they are likely to behave irresponsibly when given the chance. The need to develop more internalized reasons for behavior as well as reasons which contribute to the group as well as to their own welfare.

Disciplinary methods which incorporate threats and punishments may keep behaviors in check when the authorities who administer them are constantly present, but such methods are unlikely to have much effect when the student is on his own, acting independently, or to bring about long-range change in behavior. (The relationship of moral level to discipline approaches is discussed by George, 1980). The alternative is a school environment in which there is a participatory democracy (what Kohlberg has called a "just community" school) and in which teachers and students work together to develop rules and procedures which they agree upon. Classroom moral dilemma discussions and role-taking opportunities are carried out on a regular basis in such schools, and disciplinary procedures in which students are forced to think about and take responsibility for their actions and develop jointly with their teachers methods for overcoming problems are used. The remainder of this paper presents some early findings from schools in which such programs have been adopted.

Current and Ongoing Research on Moral Education Programs

Kohlberg has often been criticized for espousing theory without testing the practical application of it, and he has directed criticism

toward himself for deducing teacher practices from research-based psychological theory. Calling this "an incorrect perspective," he feels that he has corrected this only in recent years through day-to-day involvement in the moral education programs of the Cluster Alternative School at Cambridge High School. His experience has convinced him that "only if a theory can be genuinely accepted by teachers in terms of their own autonomous thinking, and not from the prestige or authority of 'science,' can it form a valid basis for practice. If an educational theory is too complicated, too far from the teacher's common sense and observation, the fault lies not in the teachers but in the theory (Hersh, Paolitto & Reimer, 1979, pp. ix-x). In his early focus on individual development, Kohlberg felt he ignored the group and community setting in which the development occurred, so the natural next step for his work was to test his moral development model, especially the "just community" concept, in moral education programs. Three such programs were established through a Danforth grant in Cambridge, Brookline, and Pittsburgh, with emphasis on 1) development of curriculum to incorporate moral development and education as a dimension of all courses and not just a course in itself, integrating moral dilemma discussions with regular curricular material in history, social studies and English; 2) discussion of real as well as hypothetical dilemmas or moral decisions (integrating Rogerian counseling psychology practices with Socratic cognitive-developmental questioning) into the school curriculum with the teacher as counselor and questioner, and 3) governance of classroom and school as a just community or participatory democracy (Hersh, et al., 1979, pp. xiv-xvi).

Powers (1979 a), in an article on the moral atmosphere of the school, expanded on the specific characteristics of the Cluster School alternative program in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The school is governed by direct democracy, with each student and faculty member having one vote. Everyone in the school meets once a week for a two-hour community meeting in which decisions about running the school are made by majority vote. A discipline committee of faculty and students hears problems related to infractions of rules and discipline. Advisory groups meet with the staff and send representatives to community meetings. The Cluster School philosophy is drawn from Durkheim's moral education and from Kibbutz educational

philosophy. The elements of Durkheim's approach which Powers describes as part of the Cluster School philosophy are the *spirit of discipline*, which includes shared or collective norms of behavior such as honesty, helpfulness, and school participation, and the *spirit of altruism*, in which there is a shared attachment to the group and the school and a shared ideal of community. In Durkheim's model the constraint of discipline is complemented by the attractive force of attachment to the group. Durkheim's idea was that moral character develops in a context where students have to limit their behavior for the sake of the community. He believed in collective rewards and punishments to stress the interconnectedness of the group. The Cluster School staff does not impose group norms or sanctions on students, but proposes them for democratic acceptance. The focus is on the group's responsibility for individual behavior. Powers gives an example of a stealing incident handled by the student discipline committee in the second year of the moral education program. Students decided that the whole community was responsible for the individual's stealing and recommended that each student "chip in" to pay back the victim. One student expressed the rationale for this in these words:

> This is an issue to the community and the community is sort of at fault in a way. What you do is you try to raise the money by everybody—instead of one person taking the fall, everybody does. One person's problem is everybody's problem; because it is a community and you share everything—you are not only stealing from another person, but you are also stealing from the community. (p. 14)

From the first to the second year of the Cluster School, students showed development in moral reasoning. From a primary focus on respect for property and use of punishment as a deterrent, students moved in the second year toward a concern for trust and collective responsibility. In the first year, the primary concern expressed in class meetings was protecting individual interests, but by the second year, building a sense of community was seen as more important. Powers (1979 b) gives examples of issues, discussions, and recommendations at sample class meetings in his description of the Cluster School, although he cites a relatively low participation rate (30 percent on the

average) as a problem which the staff is still trying to address. An important outcome noted by Powers, however, is that while the first year punishment and constraint approach to stealing did not have the effect of stopping stealing incidents, the second year's meeting *did* end with a shared community norm against stealing, such that no thefts occurred in the school for the three years after the latter meeting.

The Danforth Foundation has also funded grants for schools in Tacoma, Washington, Salt Lake City, Bakersfield, California, school systems to initiate or continue work in civic and moral education. A separate project called "Ethical Issues in Decision-Making" was funded under a New York State ESEA Title IV-C Grant in Scarsdale. Codding and Arenella (1981) describe the Scarsdale Alternative School project as humanistic and democratic initially, but in cognitive moral theory the staff found a "philosophical and psychological rationale" for much of what they were attempting to accomplish, "as well as a systematic means for understanding the conflicts and failures which had begun to 'burnout' the staff and frustrate the students. It did so by supplying a link between democracy and research about development" (p. 5). The Scarsdale program initially had the goals of creating a sense of community among teachers and students, having a workable, democratic school governance system, emphasizing community and cooperation while not overlooking individual needs and differences, increasing student responsibility and freedom to pursue education, heightening student and teacher awareness of process without giving up product and content, and making the school more responsive to the larger community outside. Using Kohlberg's often-stated idea that development is the aim of education and his just community concept, the goal of the program was expanded to that of helping adolescents construct a Stage 4 moral community in which both the limits of the community's authority over the individual and the limits of the individual's freedom were recognized (Durkheim's idea of altruism and conscientious obligation).

Three aspects of the Scarsdale program were researched (Kohlberg, Leiberman, Powers, Higgins, with Codding, 1981)—the effect of an Ethical Issues in Decision-Making course, the effect of the just

community approach to education, and the combined effect of the two experiences. Students in the ethical issues course at Scarsdale and Mamaroneck, a second alternative program which did not include a democratic just community governance process, showed significant gains in moral maturity for these students compared to controls. Gains of more than one-fourth stage on Kohlberg's moral development scale were produced, more than twice that of the gains in control students not enrolled in such a course. When students in the just community school were compared with students in the Mamaroneck Alternative School, independent of their enrollment in an ethical issues course, students at Scarsdale showed significantly greater gains in moral maturity, suggesting that the moral atmosphere of the school produced a greater effect than the ethics course by itself in either an alternative or regular high school setting. The greatest gains were shown by those students who had the course within the just community system. This would seem to validate Kohlberg's contention that moral education programs are most effective when implemented school-wide rather than just through one course in the curriculum, although the latter can have an effect where an overall program is not feasible.

The most recent findings on the relationship of moral judgment and moral behavior and on the effect of moral education programs following Kohlberg's model were summarized in three papers presented at an international conference on moral development and morality held in Miami Beach in December, 1981. Candee and Kohlberg (1981) showed that there is increasing consistency in carrying out moral choices as stage of development goes up. Stage 4 individuals are more likely to act on their convictions than those reasoning at Stage 3, for instance. Their study included a re-analysis and validation of the earlier study (Haan, et al., 1968) of political activists. According to Candee and Kohlberg, lower stage individuals often "intuit" higher level principles, but do not act upon them. Current analysis procedures for Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Scale take into account both judgment (development) and action (responsible behavior) aspects of moral maturity.

Higgins, Powers and Kohlberg's study (1981) on students in just

community school settings found upward movement of one-fourth to one-half stage in one year in the alternative settings, significantly higher than development of students in regular high schools. Although moral development levels predict to moral action, it is not unusual to find Stage 3 students in classical moral judgment level who act at Stage 2 in practical moral behavior situations. Both earlier prison studies and studies of democratic and control schools have shown this. Students in the democratic high schools, however, were found to *act* on their moral judgments significantly more often than students in regular high schools.

Finally, Colby and Kohlberg's 1981 update of the twenty-year longitudinal study of moral judgments documents the overall assumptions of Kohlberg's stage theory—updward movement, no stage skipping or regression, a strong age/stage correlation ($r = .78$) and the use of a single dominate stage with an adjacent stage by each subject. This study of 53 males who were in Kohlberg's original sample has involved a full-scale Moral Judgment Interview (nine dilemmas) administered every three years for twenty years to the sample. Ten to 13 year olds were found to be primarily Stages 1/2, 2 and some 2/3; 13-14 year olds were Stages 2 and 3; by late adolescence one-half of the subjects were Stage 3 with some at Stage 4; by the early 20's many completed the transition to Stage 4, and by the late 20's most had completed this transition. About one-eighth to one-sixth of the sample reached Stages 4/5 or 5, and no one reached Stage 5 before the mid-20's. Although this study does not deal with the relationship of moral development level to behavior, it does give validation to a process of development which should be a concern of teachers, parents, and others working with young people. If courses in ethical decision-making, moral discussions and role-taking opportunities in classrooms, and democratic (just community) approaches to school governance can be demonstrated to enhance the possibilities of development to higher moral levels in students, then certainly such moral education programs should be a high priority in our schools.

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Helping Low Achievers Achieve[1]

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Life-chances and schooling

Imagine two boys in the second grade class of an average American school. They like each other, are generally attentive to their work and are reading on grade level. They have slightly better than average IQ scores. In fact, the two boys are similar in most respects except that one (we'll call him Johnny) comes from an affluent home and the other (Bobby) comes from a poverty home. Johnny's father earns a salary that puts him in the 90th percentile of American workers and Bobby's dad earns a wage that places him in the 10th percentile.

What does life hold for these two youngsters? Of course, we can't tell in any absolute sense but we can estimate their life chances by investigating the odds working for and against them.

Johnny, the boy from the affluent home, is four times more likely than his friend to go to college and twelve times more likely to graduate with a four-year degree. By the time Johnny is 40 years old he is 27 times more likely than Bobby to be earning a salary comparable to that of Johnny's afluent father. That is to say, Johnny is 27 times more likely to pass on to his children the financial and social advantages that he inherited from his affluent parents.

These data, as grim as they are, are based on studies conducted in less economically troubled times.[2] The odds against Bobby are probably worse today. And if Bobby were female, or black, or both, the odds would be worse still.

There are, no doubt, myriad factors that contribute to the likelihood of Johnny's "success" in life and to the likelihood of Bobby's "failure." In fact, there are so many contributing factors that such words as "success" and "failure" hardly seem appropriate here. This vocabulary suggests that the two boys will somehow earn their place

in school and in the world and that in the end they will deserve whatever befalls them.

We are not driving at an outlandish point here, we are merely suggesting that people's life chances are mitigated by external forces in the environment as well as those internal forces we call character. And, we are further suggesting that what is often defined in exclusively internal terms (such character attributes as motivation, interest, attitude, drive, self-esteem, locus of control, willingness to delay gratification and so on) are themselves influenced by factors external to individuals. Johnny's social environment helps create in him a set of values, ambitions and behaviors that enable him to get a great deal out of school and help him to maximize his access to the goods and services of the culture. Bobby's world, on the other hand, limits his access to knowledge and ultimately to the "good life."

Schooling and student improvability

The equalization of opportunity in America has long been an aim of our educational system. In 1782 Jefferson warned that democracy could not survive without nurturing through education "those talents which nature has sown as liberally among the poor as the rich..."[3]

We have made progress toward achieving the goals Jefferson outlined for education. But we have not yet produced a school system that affords individuals from all backgrounds an equal educational opportunity and that allows them to get jobs commensurate with their abilities. A great deal of research has been done that documents this fact. However, such research is of limited value to teachers. While it shows us that our goals have not yet been met, the research does not tell us what needs to be done in order to achieve more equitable results.

Indeed, since the publication of the Coleman report in 1966,it has been fashionable to believe that schools were powerless to improve the academic performance of low achieving, low SES students. Over the past ten years, however, a great deal of research has been done which counters this conclusion. The research must be interpreted

with caution, however, because there are no findings that suggest that schools can eliminate all the deficits poverty children bring with them from the home. But there is evidence that teachers can help. It is terribly important that teachers understand that what they do individually in the classroom and collectively in the school can make a difference in the academic performance and ultimately in the life chances of their students. Admittedly these differences will seldom be dramatic and they will not be sufficient to make America the meritocratic society it strives to become. We agree with those critics who contend that it is unrealistic and counterproductive to expect schools to right the wrongs a whole culture has had a hand in creating and perpetuating.[4] Admitting the limits of schooling, however, should not divert us from our obligation to improve the educational opportunity available to children from poverty backgrounds. It is imperative that the educational system not write off a substantial portion of the school population as unteachable. For the quality of education makes a difference in people's lives, even when we measure quality simply in terms of the years an individual spends in school.[5]

The remainder of this session will be devoted to a discussion of research we have recently conducted in 48 basic skills classrooms in four Florida high schools. Our focus will be on how teacher attitudes regarding the educability of poverty students affects those students' academic performance as measured by the Metropolitan Achievement Test.

Efficacy and student achievement

The focus of our research was on the issue of teacher efficacy, by which we mean the extent to which teachers believe themselves able to affect the academic performance of their low-achieving students. We wanted to know if a teacher's sense of efficacy was related to his or her classroom behavior, the behavior of students, and ultimately to students' achievement. Our research was done under a grant that Professor Ashton received from the National Institute of Education.

We found that teachers' sense of efficacy was significantly related to the scores that basic skills students received on Metropolitan

Achievement Tests ($r = .78$, $p < .003$ in Florida Basic Skills (FBS) Mathematics classes and $r = .83$, $p < .02$ in FBS Communications classes).[6] Our findings were consistent with those of a 1976 Rand study that reported a significant relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and increases in students' reading scores on a standardized reading test.[7]

What do high efficacy teachers do to encourage learning in their classroom? To find the answer to this question we observed in Florida basic skills classes using two instruments, the Florida Climate and Control System[8] and the Teacher Practice Observation Record.[9] We found that high efficacy teachers are more likely than low efficacy teachers to be warm, accepting and attentive to the individual needs and interests of all their students. They're more likely to respond to students in a positive fashion and to encourage student involvement in classroom activities. Classrooms run by low efficacy teachers, on the other hand, are characterized by greater tension and hostility, less teacher attentiveness to the needs of individual students, and less acceptance of student ideas and concerns. In short, we found that teacher efficacy was significantly related to teacher behavior, students' behavior, and student achievement.

The results reviewed above aided us in developing a motivational model that links teacher efficacy and behavior to student behavior and achievement. This model is presented diagrammatically in Figure 1. The solid arrows depict relationships that are supported by data from our study. The broken arrows indicate relationships that are postulated but have not yet been tested.

Teachers' sense of efficacy occupies an important place in our motivational model. It seems reasonable to suggest that teachers who believe they can get through to low-achieving students are likely to try to get through and those who feel they cannot reach such students are not likely to exert much effort in that direction. But efficacy is not simply a first cause in a linear chain of events. A teacher's sense of efficacy both affects and is affected by student behavior. A teacher who tries diligently but unsuccessfully to teach basic skills students may become disillusioned in the process. As a result, his or her sense

of efficacy may decline. Another teacher, enjoying more positive results, may alter his or her efficacy attitudes accordingly. Unfortunately, teaching experience is more likely to lower efficacy attitudes than it is to heighten them. We have found that students training to be teachers generally have a higher sense of efficacy than do experienced teachers.

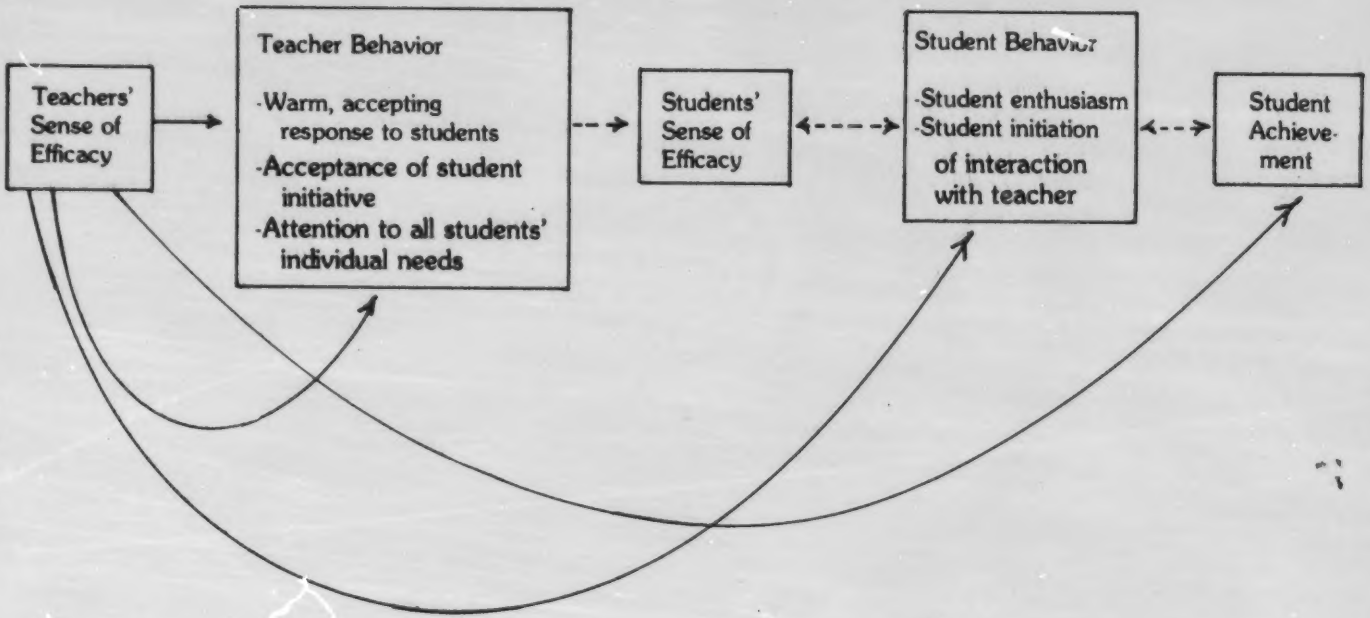

Figure 1

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy: The Critical Construct in a Motivational Model of Teacher Behavior and Student Achievement

Keeping the faith

Why are some teachers able to maintain high efficacy attitudes while others are not? We wish we had a definitive answer to that question, but we do not. However, we feel confident that the key to the efficacy issue rests in the school and community environment and not solely in the character of teachers. The distinction here is important because it guards us against believing that efficacy research will provide a quick and inexpensive way to improve education while avoiding essential reform. If the school environment lowers teachers' sense of efficacy we are not likely to solve that problem by hiring a crop of high efficacy replacements. We must not be trapped into thinking of efficacy attitudes in terms of good teachers vs bad teachers. Many low efficacy teachers impressed us as being bright, well-educated and hard working people who simply have been overpowered by a lack of professional communication with their peers, lack of administrative support, lack of public appreciation for the efforts, by financial worries, by heavy class loads, by multiple preparations, by abundant paperwork and insufficient materials, and perhaps worst of all, by the nagging uncertainties that they may not be accomplishing anything worthwhile in their classes. These problems challenge a teacher's sense of professional confidence. The challenge is made all the more acute when a teacher must deal every day with 40 or more low SES, low-achieving students who are hard to manage and difficult to teach. Two teachers explained their frustration this way.

> For a while I thought I'd quit teaching. I just felt kind of useless because I was going through long periods of time thinking that I wasn't doing any good for anybody.

> I gave a test at the end of the year in which I reviewed material we'd gone over since the fall. Most of my students didn't do very well. I felt as if (I were running) a diploma factory.

Frustrated and threatened by their inability to get through to low-achieving students, some teachers blame pupils for their lack of achievement. When teachers claim student failure is due to weakness in the student's character (laziness, lack of motivation, apathy and so on) or to a student's limited innate ability (low IQ scores and/or poor home environment) the teacher is freed from the heavy burden of

being in some sense responsible for student failure. Low efficacy teachers are more likely than their high efficacy counterparts to believe that basic skills students aren't learning because they can't learn. As three teachers put it:

> The...basic problem (with low-achieving students is that) their thinking skills are limited. Their rational thinking, logical skills, are just missing. They haven't been taught to reason...they've just been raised; they're not raised to think. They come to school and I can teach them to read, but I can't teach them to think rationally. I don't know if they'll ever get (basic skills) no matter how hard we work them. Partially (that's due to) immaturity and lack of motivation. I'm sure some of it has to do with mental ability and capacity. I'm sure of that.

> I can tell them every day that they have to do well in English, but they don't seem to care. I don't think it's me... You can't stand there with a cattle prod to keep them awake.

Of course, ability and motivation are factors in achievement and we should not be surprised that teachers mention these factors as deterrents to learning. But it is interesting that when low efficacy teachers discuss ability and motivation, they do so to explain why students can't be taught rather than why such students have trouble learning. Even after saying this, however, we're not inclined to blame the Bobbys of the world for the problems they will face in life. The teachers we talked to were all genuinely interested in doing their jobs well. They were concerned about their low-achieving students. But low efficacy teachers found such students threatening to the image they had of themselves as caring and competent teachers. Rather than questioning their own competence, these teachers questioned whether low achieving students were capable of learning anything at all. They chose to put their energies and talents to work in classes where they could see greater results and reap greater personal satisfaction. As one teacher put it:

> Regular students are just more vivacious and want to excel. They really want to do well. But compensatory classes will bring

> you down because the discipline problem... If one student looks at another the wrong way they'll start arguing. They'll try to make the teacher look bad if they can... I don't know why, but they will. I'll admit I look forward to Wednesdays when I don't have to teach my 5th period comp ed class.

The result of low efficacy attitudes is that some teachers finally give up trying to teach their basic skills classes.

> You don't want to sit down and continue to work...with (compensatory education students) when you know they're not going to remember it. I feel you can sit down with some of these students and go over (the material) and they'll know it and they can do it right then and there. And you get up and leave and come back 5 minutes later and they've forgotten how to do it completely.
>
> I'm not going to reach them all. I think an awful lot of teacher energy is wasted on those (students) who don't do anything...
>
> Is it worth it, spending hours and hours for just 12 compensatory education students? It takes a lot of time, a lot of time for a very few kids.
>
> I don't want to teach grammar, I told the principal that. In fact, I told him not to assign me to a language arts class again. We argued about it. I said I'm not interested in teaching grammar to illiterates. He said that was because I don't like teaching grammar. But I said, "Wrong, I love grammar. I'm a whiz at grammar. It's the easiest thing in the world to teach. But these students can't get it and I don't agree with teaching it to them..."

The chances for change

We're not going to change such attitudes by preaching a gospel of positive thinking to teachers. We must remember that low efficacy attitudes reflect the classroom experiences of the teachers who hold them. Basic skills students really do not learn much in classrooms run by low efficacy teachers. And we must remember, too, that low

efficacy attitudes serve an important psychological function for the teachers who hold them. Such attitudes protect the teacher from nagging doubts regarding his or her professional competence. We are not likely to alter low efficacy attitudes by further threatening that sense of competence. What, then, is to be done? We have some suggestions and most of them come from the teachers we interviewed in our study. We offer them here simply to begin a conversation about this problem. We are convinced that teachers will come up with better solutions than the ones we propose.

1. We think it essential that schools work to eliminate the stigma that has been attached to teaching Florida Basic Skills classes. It is clear that in some schools (though certainly not all) high FBS class loads have been assigned to teachers in whom the administration has the least confidence.

2. We must produce more and better materials for the FBS classes, especially in the area of communication skills. Teachers often complain that they do not have adequate materials for teaching their classes. More materials should be developed and the materials that already exist should be shared among teachers and among schools. We suggest that workshops be conducted at the school, school district, and state levels to facilitate communication between FBS teachers and a sharing of instructional materials.

3. We need to pay closer attention to the problems teachers identify and to their ideas for solving those problems. Many teachers complained to us that the assignment of FBS classes are made for the bureaucratic convenience of school administrators rather than for the educational convenience of teachers and students. Some teachers reported that they had worked for a full year developing materials for, say, a ninth grade FBS communications class. The next year they would be assigned a tenth grade class that contained many of the students they worked with the year before. As a result, they would have to develop a whole new set of materials to cover the same set of state-dictated objectives. The following year they would be assigned to an eleventh grade class and they would have to begin their work again. Teachers were frustrated not only because they had to do an

immense amount of essentially unnecessary work but also because school administrators appeared indifferent to their requests for more sensible scheduling procedures. They complained that their problems were not being taken seriously and that their effectiveness in the classroom was being jeopardized unnecessarily.

4. We must realize that teaching is an uncertain and generally isolated profession and that teachers need a good deal of professional support. The teachers we talked to expressed great frustration over the fact that they received little or no appreciation from the public, administrators, or colleagues for the work they do. Teachers indicated that they had little or no opportunity to discuss classroom problems with colleagues. The few conversations that they did have they said were often fleeting, superficial and unproductive. Teachers wanted to know whether their colleagues experienced the same frustrations that they experienced in FBS classes, and they wanted to share ideas on how to overcome these frustrations. However, they indicated that there was little time for such an interchange and worried that there may not be sufficient trust among teachers to facilitate such discussions.

5. We must make it clear to administrators, teachers, parents and students that the major work of the school is academic and that the school that fails to teach students to read, write, compute and solve problems intelligently is failing to achieve the most basic aim of American education. Schools must promote a climate of academic achievement. A number of studies indicate that effective schools (those that promote learning for all students) are schools where policies and administrative practices are organized to achieve an academic mission. Administrators in such schools display management skills and an understanding of instructional strategies. There is good reason to believe that the most effective way to improve teacher efficacy attitudes is to focus on school climate rather than solely on the belief systems of individual teachers. School climate studies do not advocate the abandonment of the humanistic concern for the student. Indeed, our research indicates that such a concern is essential to the academic achievement of compensatory education students. However, a humanistic concern for students will not, by

itself, promote learning. Teachers must be concerned enough to teach, must give assignments and see that the assignments are done correctly, and must keep students working on a topic until the material is mastered.

6. We must help teachers improve the quality of classroom instruction. Many teachers ask for training in specific teaching strategies that have proven effective for low-achieving students. We have reviewed the literature in this field and are presently offering workshops on this topic. We believe such in-service training is most likely to be productive when teacher participation is voluntary, when there is maximum opportunity for teachers to contribute their own ideas, when the training has relevance to the everyday problems that a teacher faces in his or her classroom, when the training gives teachers an opportunity to practice specific instructional strategies, when the teachers are given non-threatening feedback on their performance and when the whole process is evaluated by teachers and verified through studies of student achievement.

Improving the quality of education offered to poverty students is not an easy undertaking and we do not wish to minimize the difficulty of the task. Schools will not put right all that is wrong in poverty homes or the society in which they exist. But schools can improve the life chances of poor children and as educators it is our obligation to do all that we can to help improve the lot of our students.

References

1. The work upon which this presentation is based was performed pursuant to Contract No. 400-79-0075 of the National Institute of Education. It does not, however, necessarily reflect the views of that agency.

2. Richard deLone, *Small Futures*, (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1979).

3. Quoted in Harry S. Kariel, *The Decline of American Pluralism*, (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1960), p. 254.

4. We agree with Samuel Bowle's assessment that "the achievement of some degree of equality of opportunity depends in part on what we do in the educational system, but also, to a very large degree, in what we do elsewhere in the economy, in the polity, and in society as a whole." Samuel Bowles' "Toward Equality of Educational Opportunity," in *Equal Educational Opportunity*, expansion of the Winter 1968 special issue, *Harvard Educational* Review (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1969), p. 121.

5. The difference education makes in people's lives has been studied extensively. Hyman, Wright and Reed concluded their book, *The Enduring Effects of Education*, by saying, "Many and varied measurements on thousands of adults, drawn from a long series of national samples...lead us to conclude that education produces large, pervasive and enduring effects on knowledge and receptivity to knowledge. To readers grown accustomed to the common, severe, and manifold criticisms of education, the conclusion may come as a refreshing surprise." Herbert H. Hyman, Charles R. Wright and John Shelton Reed, *The Enduring Effects of Education*, (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1975), p. 109. There is much to be said for the tentative conclusion of Christopher Jencks: "We also infer that equalizing the amount of schooling people get might do quite a lot to equalize cognitive skills." Christopher Jencks et al., *Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effects of the Family and Schooling in America*, (New York: Basic Books, 1972), p. 88. Wilbur Schramm and his associates have documented the cognitive effects of education. They conclude that "education must be contributing to the skills, the ability to understand, the interest in serious information, and the habit of seeking it. Education, as we have suggested before, must be outlining a cognitive map which the individual spends the rest of his life filling out and, to some extent, revising. Education must be arousing a curiosity that lasts after the school years." Wilbur Schramm et al., "Knowledge and the Public Mind: A Preliminary Study of the Distribution and Forces of Science, Health, and Public Affairs Knowledge in the American Public," mimeographed, (Stanford: Insititute for Communication Research, 1967), p. 120, quoted in *The Enduring Effects of Education*, p. 116.

6. Students' entering ability was controlled by holding constant the students' scores on the Metropolitan test from the previous year.

7. David Armor, "Analysis of the School Preferred Reading Program in Selected Los Angeles Minority School." R-2-07-LAUSD (Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, 1976). In our study, as in the Rand study, teachers' sense of efficacy was measured by a total score obtained from two Likert items:

    1) When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her environment.
    2) If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.

8. Robert Soar and Ruth Soar, "Climate and Control System," (Gainesville, Fla.: College of Education, University of Florida, unpublished manuscript, 1981).

9. Bob Burton Brown, *The Experimental Mind in Education*, (New York: Harper & Row, 1968).

Up The Mainstream-With/Without A Paddle

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Many educators and administrators are not enamored with demands "that handicapped children, to the extent appropriate, are to be educated in regular classroom settings with their non-handicapped peers" (Stephens, Blackhurst & Magliocca, 1982). Administrators and educators contend that they are simply *UP* the mainstream-without a paddle!

How successful has the process of mainstreaming been working in the public schools? A thorough consideration of the present status suggests that mainstreaming is a highly complex process.

The complexities of mainstreaming become evident as one considers the implications of a definition supplied by Kaufman, Gottlieb, Agard, & Jukic (1975):

> Mainstreaming refers to the temporal, instructional, and social integration of eligible exceptional children with normal peers based on ongoing, individually determined, educational planning and programming process and required clarification of responsibility among regular and special education administrative, instructional, and supportive personnel (p. 4).

There are many reasons for maintaining exceptional children within the mainstream of education. The following list presents but a few:

1. Research has failed to demonstrate that handicapped youngsters progress more quickly when segregated.

2. It is believed that the stigma associated with special class placement is removed when the handicapped child remains in the regular class.

3. Interaction with non-handicapped peers is often beneficial to handicapped students.

4. Mainstreaming lessens the need for labeling; thus the potential negative effects of labels are reduced.

5. Many parents do not want segregation.

6. Court decisions now specify that regular class placement is preferable.

Reginald Jones (1980) asserts that in order for mainstreaming to work in a classroom, the following variables must be in place.

1. The handicapped child's educational needs must be compatible with the instruction that is offered to the non-handicapped child.

2. The regular teacher must be willing to modify instructional practices to accommodate a child whose learning style or ability may be seriously discrepant from the remaining students in the class.

3. There is a need for a coordinated effort between the regular classroom teacher and the supportive personnel available in the school or district.

Other researchers reassert that handicapped children *can* successfully integrate and that the issue seems to be NOT whether successful integration is possible but for *what* conditions acceptable and enduring gains can be obtained in the regular classroom.

The main thrust of mainstreamed education to date has concerned class placement. That is, mainstreaming has been defined by schools in terms of the amount of time a handicapped child spends in regular classes, for academic and/or non-academic progress.

Review of Literature

Miller and Sabatino (1978) compared two special education resource service models to measure their effects on student achievement and on teacher and pupil behavior.

The teacher consultant was defined as an itinerant special educator whose major focus is to serve handicapped children through the direct skill improvement of regular teachers in regular classrooms. For the experiment, the teacher consultant model contained a total of 261 children (240 LD, 21 EMH; 178 boys, 83 girls). The resource room model contained a total of 219 children (202 LD, 17 EMH; 138 boys, 81 girls). The control group consisted of 67 children–62 LD, 5 EMH).

The results of the study indicated that there was no difference in WRAT word recognition and WRAT arithmetic in teacher consultant and resource room models but both were better than control. Measures of teacher behavior improvement were more frequently observed in the teacher consultant model.

Programming Gains

Cross-age tutors. A series of studies in reading, spelling, and arithmetic (Jenkins, Mayhall, Peschka, and Jenkins, 1974) compared children's learning when given small group instruction by a resource teacher and when given instruction by cross-age and peer tutors. The tutors were trained and supervised by a resource teacher. The results of the study indicated that each child learned more when instructed by a tutor than he did when taught by a resource teacher in a small group. As also reported by Jenkins, et al., studies in other skill areas with educable mentally handicapped and learning disabled children produced similar results.

Active Engagement. A recent research study conducted by Far West Lab revealed that handicapped students spend less time actively engaged in learning than regular students. Even more important, handicapped students are bogged down with learning tasks they do not understand and cannot successfully complete. In fact, the handicapped students included in the study spent three times as much time on low-success tasks and experienced only one-third the amount of high-success as the regular students.

These findings come from a two-year study of Academic Learning Time (ALT) in mainstreamed classrooms conducted by Far West Lab (FWL) in San Francisco. ALT is a term used to describe the amount of time students spend in academic tasks that they can perform with a high degree of success. The term was coined by FWL researchers who discovered that the more time students spend actively engaged in high-success tasks, the more they learn (Chow, 1981).

Daily Measurement. To determine the effects of daily measurement and feedback upon children's academic performance, the resource specialist and the students receiving instruction were either permitted or not permitted to view the results of their daily performance measures. The authors contend that the children's growth was positively influenced when they and their teachers were aware of daily performance.

Gresham (1982) suggests that mainstreaming is based in part upon three (3) faulty assumptions: (1) placement of handicapped children in regular classrooms will result in increased social interaction between handicapped and non-handicapped children; (2) placement of handicapped children in regular classrooms will result in increased social acceptance of handicapped children by their non-handicapped peers; and (3) mainstreamed handicapped children will model the behavior of their non-handicapped peers because of increased exposure to them.

Part II

Where are we in relationship to our perceptions of mainstreaming? Certainly, there is current contention between special educators who endorse mainstreaming, normalization, or least restrictive alternatives and regular educators who claim they've been trained to teach only the normal child? What are some factors which would make mainstreaming easier for all concerned? Would the ability and attitudes toward working with the exceptional child for a part of a day or week be improved by including special education content and methods courses in teacher preparation programs for regular education programs? Would the process of mainstreaming be made easier through having smaller class size for those teachers who agree to work with mainstreamed students? What are some of the factors that would make mainstreaming easier?

The purpose of our study was to determine educators' perceptions of factors frequently cited as making mainstreaming easier. Educators currently teaching exceptional children, those currently teaching "regular" children, and those undergraduates preparing to teach either exceptional or "regular" children were surveyed.

Materials. The instrument used to obtain the descriptive data was divided into two sections. The biographical section identified respondents according to age, marital status, professional preparation, sex, years of teaching experience, and level of degree.

The second section consisted of 12 items identified as possible factors necessary for successful mainstreaming. An open-ended question asking the students to list any other factors they felt essential for successful mainstreaming completed the pilot questionnaire.

The instrument was then distributed to 30 graduate students who served as the scale development sample. The students were enrolled in special education classes at the University of Central Florida. Analysis of the responses resulted in the combining of two items and a refinement of the directions. No new factors were suggested in response to the open-ended question. Consequently, the final questionnaire consisted of ten (10) items. (See Table 1.)

Procedure. The instrument was then distributed to students in randomly selected graduate and undergraduate education courses. The 150 participants were instructed to rank order the ten (10) factors from the most important (Number 1), to the least important (Number 10) for successful mainstreaming.

Results. Results were calculated separately for special educators, "regular" educators, and undergraduate students majoring in either regular or special education. Demographic data revealed that 88.4% of the total respondents were females. Sixty-five percent (65%) were in the 20 to 30 range and 69.9% had less than three (3) years teaching experience. Of those teaching, most were assigned to self-contained classes in either exceptional or regular programs. Perceptions of the ten factors clearly indicated a hierarchy of preference. All three

groups rated the assistance of a resource person who would work directly with the regular educator as a top priority for successful mainstreaming. "Regular teachers and undergraduate students considered small class size while special educators ranked continuous communication between regular and special educators as second in importance. All of the participants rated alternative grading, sharing IEP plans, and additional university coursework among the least important factors for successful mainstreaming. It is interesting to note that special teachers and undergraduates did not perceive additional planning time for the teacher of mainstreamed students as necessary.

Discussion. The study performed a useful service in providing a basis for teacher training and inservice activity. The teachers or teacher trainees infer that direct service from resource personnel would promote the mainstreaming effort and, that administrators and faculty should analyze staff/student ratio in terms of adequate staffing for current demands, since ratio is seen as a limitation to planning for and the management of students with mild and severe learning and for behavior problems.

Additional information appears to be needed. Yet, the time involved in negotiating a change in the grading procedure, reporting IEP information and retraining may not effectively accomplish the goal.

To review, don't fret over the duration of time; only consider the *quality* of time in the mainstreamed class. Cross-age tutors and peer tutors should increase the quality factor.

From the broad array of resource room models, choose the one that best suits your needs. Whatever model is selected, remind teachers that feedback in the form of awareness of performance produces positive results and to guard against excessive student time on low success tasks.

A challenging faculty discussion might focus upon academic and social patterns of students selected for the mainstreaming experiment

or faculty assumptions regarding the impact and purposes of the process.

We hope that we have stimulated you to consider at least one idea in a different perspective.

Table I

Directions:

Mainstreaming refers to the functional integration and participation of exceptional students in the social and instructional programs of regular classrooms (Hardman, 1981). We are interested in reporting your perceptions of factors that would make mainstreaming easier for you. Listed below are factors frequently cited. Rank the factor that would be most helpful to you with the numeral 1 (most important); continue until all ten have been ranked from most important (10). Comments concerning the implementation of mainstreaming or barriers to mainstreaming would be appreciated.

_____ Extra planning time for teachers.

_____ A resource person (aide, paraprofessional, teacher, etc.) who works directly with the regular educator while the mainstreamed student is in the regular classroom.

_____ Participation of the regular teacher in the staffing and decision-making process concerning placement.

_____ Inservice training workshops dealing with diagnosis and teaching strategies for the mainstreamed student.

_____ Alternative prepared materials for special needs of the mainstreamed students (such as tapes for social studies text or special tests) and curriculum.

_____ An alternative school-side grading program for exceptional students.

_____ Continuous communication between regular and resource persons who provide direct service to the mainstreamed student.

_____ Smaller class size for those teachers who agree to work with mainstreamed students.

_____ Sharing of the individual education plan (IEP) among those directly involved with the teaching of the mainstreamed student.

_____ Required courses concerning exceptional students for all undergraduates planning to become teachers.

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Children's Views On Two Sides Of An Ocean: Alike Or Different?

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Over the past two decades much attention has been given to the influence of environment or interests, attitudes, and specific personality characteristics; yet, the popular lyrics in Central Florida indicate that it is a "Small World." To test this hypothesis, the researchers chose to do an exploratory investigation of the perceptions of fifth grade students regarding activities that they enjoyed, changes they would make in learning activities, and responses to miscellaneous questions about school, persons they admired, as well as, problems in their country and problems in the world. One hundred fifteen students participated in the investigation. The English students (57) were enrolled in a junior school in Berkshire, England, and the American students (58) attended Pershing School in Orange County, Florida, and Sterling Park in Seminole County. The school populations were matched, basically, according to the occupational status of their parents.

Descriptive percentages and frequency tallies were used to examine the responses. In Section A of the questionnaire, where students responded on a Liker-type scale (very often, sometimes, never) to best describe what they liked to do, the patterns were surprisingly similar even though the percentages did differ.

The first percentages figures will summarize the responses of Central Florida students.

A. Place an "X" in the column that best describes what you would like to do.

	Very Often		Sometimes		Never	
Read	34%	20%	62%	65%	3%	15%
Go to school	67%	50%	17%	27%	16%	23%
	US	Eng	US	Eng	US	Eng

Reading was categorized as an activity enjoyed "sometimes" with both populations while going to school was liked by most of the students most of the time. Participating in sports events was consideted more favorable by the Central Florida students while playing with friends appeared more popular with the English children.

	Very Often		Sometimes		Never	
Be in sporting events	67%	47%	29%	48%	3%	4%
Play games with friends	62%	76%	38%	21%	--	--

The Americans tended to go to parties more often and definitely played computer games more often than their pen pals.

	Very Often		Sometimes		Never	
Go to a party	55%	25%	41%	71%	3%	4%
Play TV-computer games	78%	36%	17%	46%	5%	18%

Attitudes toward studying were not very encouraging. Studying was perceived more favorably by the Florida students even though (51%) chose to study only sometimes. Sixty-one percent of the respondents in England suggested that never did they like to study.

	Very Often		Sometimes		Never	
Study	26%	11%	51%	28%	22%	61%

Listening to music was very popular with both groups while going to a museum would not rank in the best liked category.

	Very Often		Sometimes		Never	
Listen to music	58%	48%	36%	29%	5%	23%
Like to go to museum	25%	11%	52%	72%	23%	17%

American students attended musical concerts and sporting events more often than the British. While both groups selected popular and rock music concerts, their views regarding favorite sports differed. As you might surmise, Americans wanted to watch football and baseball while the British chose soccer and swimming meets.

	Very Often		Sometimes		Never	
I Like to go to musical concerts... (check the concert you would choose US/Eng rock _____ Country Western _____ classical US/Eng popular	47%	17%	38%	67%	14%	16%
I like to go to sporting events..... (check your favorite sport) US ____ football Eng ____ soccer US ____ baseball _____ hockey _____ track _____ basketball Eng ____ swim meet _____ other	67%	47%	33%	47%	--	5%

With regard to vacations the first choice among British students was to travel to a foreign country and the American students selected trips to the mountains. Seashore excursions ranked as the second choice with both groups.

	Very Often	Sometimes	Never
I like to go on a vacation.....	75% 58%	25% 36%	-- 5%

US/Eng the seashore, beach
the country
US the mountains
Eng a foreign country

Pets were extremely popular, particularly dogs; next cats were selected by Central Florida Students and birds by the English students.

	Very Often	Sometimes	Never
I like pets.... My favorite is probably	78% 89%	14% 9%	8% 2%

US/Eng a dog*
US a cat
Eng a bird
_____ a fish

In section B the students were given an opportunity to suggest changes in the teaching strategies for instruction in science, math, reading, social studies, reading stories, showing films, music and art, grouping, planning field trips and using media. Surprisingly, the responses suggested that they would follow the current model.

When responding to questions (section C) pertaining to school, persons admired and problems— once again both groups tended to respond in a like manner.

C. Answer the questions below.

1. What are three things you really like to do in school?

When deciding upon three things that were really special in school, P.E. and Math lead the list for first and second choices, respectively. For a third choice the English students chose Art while the Americans selected Field Trips.

2. What is one thing you don't like to do in school?

The one thing selected most often as not being liked in England was Math (love/hate relationship) and in the U.S. was homework.

3. If you could change one thing about your school, what would it be?

When given the authority to change something in school, Central Florida students overwhelmingly selected to change the lunch program, while their counterparts would do away with the practice of "caning" (corporal punishment).

4. Do you think children who learn more slowly than the average child should by in separate classes?

5. What do you think teachers should do when children do not follow the rules?

Both groups would staff slow learners into separate classes (77% U.S.— 60% England) and both perceived punishment as necessary for children who do not follow rules.

6. Name one living person outside of your family whom you admire the most in the whole world.

The greatest difference in the response pattern occurred when they were to select one living person (outside the family) that they most

admired in the whole world. American students chose President Reagan while British students selected a friend.

7. Name three men and three women either living or dead whom you admire greatly.

Support for the family unit was a mandate from both populations. When asked to name three women and three men (living or dead) that they most admired these persons were selected.

U. S.		England	
mother	dad	mum	dad
grandmother	granddad	nanny	granddad
aunt	Mr. Reagan	aunt	uncle

8. What are the two (2) greatest problems in your country?

9. What are the two (2) greatest problems in the world?

The responses were:

U. S.	England
in your country	
inflation	strikes
crime	unemployment
in your world	
war	war
inflation	hunger

Considering the high consensus of opinions, the exploratory investigations tended to support the "Small World" hypothesis.

Interdisciplinary Writing Research: A Survey

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A few years ago if one had asked "What's going on in interdisciplinary writing research?" the answer would have been simple—"Not much." This has changed dramatically, however, with the growing curricular emphasis on the development of writing skills.

Until the mid-70's, writing research focused almost exclusively on composition within the context of English classes. The writing research which was undertaken was sporadic and generally poorly funded. Donald Graves (1978) pointed out that until very recently for each $100 spent on research to determine how children learn to read, $1 was spent on attempting to determine how children learn to write (p.12). It is little wonder that research was not supplying educators with the information necessary to improve composition curricula and methodologies.

In their classic 1963 NCTE research report on written composition, Braddock, Lloyd-Jones and Schoer commented that research in written composition could be compared with the science of chemistry as it emerged from the age of alchemy (p.5). After surveying hundreds of research studies in written composition done in the first half of the twentieth century, they concluded that most had been ineffective in addressing the real issues underlying the composing process. Such questions as "What psycholinguistic processes are involved in writing?" or "What effect does context have on composition?" were not being investigated. Noting that researchers had traditionally concentrated on secondary ideas such as the effect of grammar instruction on the improvement of composition (it was negligible), the writers urged researchers to look at the writing act itself and the conditions under which students wrote.

Researchers then turned to the activities of the individual writer typically within the confines of the English curriculum. While many

significant studies were done in the next ten years—Janet Emig's *Composing Process of Twelfth Graders*, and Donald Graves' study of the writing processes of elementary school children, just to mention two—little attention was given to the student writing to fulfill specific instructional demands of varying content areas. Then in 1975, the report of a major study in Great Britain changed all of this.

Sponsored by the Schools Council Research Project on Written Composition, a team of researchers including James Britton, Tony Burgess, Nancy Martin, Harold Rosen and others published two reports, *The Development of Writing Abilities (11-18)* and *Writing and Learning Across the Curriculum (11-16)*. An analysis of more than 2,000 samples collected from students in 65 British secondary schools established the dimensions of interdisciplinary writing research and the vitality of the topic. Operating on the assumption that the student writer's performance must be examined in all of his school writing situations, the team reached the following conclusions: 1) writers produce composition in three modes: poetic, transactional and expressive, 2) the classifications are determined by the function or the purpose of the work and the writer's relationship with the intended audience.

Briefly the modes may be described as:

> *Expressive* in which it is taken for granted that the writer himself is of interest to the reader; *transactional* in which it is taken for granted that the writer means what he says and can be challenged for its truthfulness to public knowledge and for its logicality; and *poetic* in which it is taken for granted that "true or false" is not a relevant question at the literal level. Writing in the poetic function shows heightened awareness of symbolic aural and visual qualities.
>
> (Martin, p.23)

What became immediately apparent was the difference in modes produced in four major content areas of secondary school.

Writing in the content areas other than English was shown to be predominately transactional as the following table from *Writing and Learning Across the Curriculum 11-16* indicates:

Subject	English	History	Geography	Science
Transactional	34%	88%	88%	92%
Expressive	11%	0	0	0
Poetic	39%	2%	0	0
Miscellaneous	26%	10%	12%	8%

The effect of audience as examined in this study revealed not surprisingly that in schools students write for the teacher and most frequently for the teacher as an examiner.

In the U.S. a researcher who became interested in the interdisciplinary writing during the mid-70's was Dan Donlan at the University of California, Riverside. In 1974 he conducted a survey of 129 teachers, representing grades K-12 and various content areas to determine the quantity and types of writing assigned, the purposes of the assigned writing, and the evaluation techniques used to assess this writing.

Donlan concluded that teachers favored short writing assignments of 100-300 words and that only in English and social studies were teachers likely to make 13 or more assignments a year. As in the British study, types of required writing varied sharply from one content area to another with science and social studies requiring chiefly reporting while the most frequent type required in English was narration.

In 1977, this writer surveyed math, English, science and social studies teachers in 13 central Florida high schools using the Donlan instrument. The population was more concentrated than the Donlan study in that it included only four content areas, but the number of respondents was larger—220 (94 English, 43 social studies, 36 science, and 44 math teachers). Overall results were consistent with Donlan's findings: teachers favored short writing assignments, preferred exposition and reporting, assigned writing as an extension

of class work and used in-class writing as the most frequent method of teaching writing. The two studies differed on two major items. I found that 64 percent of all local teachers made 12 or fewer assignments a year while 68 percent of the Donlan group made more than 13. In the local study 74 percent of the teachers felt that the responsibility for teacher writing belonged solely to the English teacher while only 28 percent so indicated in the Donlan study.

In order to describe the student's perspective on writing in high school, one teacher in each school who had completed the Donlan questionnaire was asked to survey one class using a student questionnaire. Responses were obtained from 446 students. Some interesting results were observable. For example, students and teachers did not speak the same language in regard to writing. Seventy-two percent of the teachers reported having assigned exposition—the most frequently assigned of all forms—but only 23 percent of the students reported having written exposition. According to data from the students, their most frequent writing activities were notetaking (63 percent), single paragraph assignments (60 percent); essay tests (59 percent); research papers (57 percent); study guide questions (48 percent); and short stories (44 percent). In one area, teachers and students agreed: rewriting and revision were not required by teachers or used by students in producing assigned writing.

In 1981 the NCTE published the most recent and most comprehensive description of the uses of writing in the content areas of secondary school. The study by Arthur N. Applebee entitled *Writing in the Secondary School English and the Content Areas* was based on data from two sources: classroom observations and a national survey of teachers of English, math, science, social studies, business and foreign language.

Observations of randomly selected ninth and eleventh grade classes in two midwestern high schools took place between October 1979 and April 1980. A total of 309 classes were observed. Researchers noted that 44 percent of the classroom instructional time involved pencil and paper activity. Of this time, 24 percent was spent in "mechanical" (writing without composing) uses—fill-in blanks, calculating,

transcription, etc.; 17 percent of this time was spent in informational writing such as notetaking; 3 percent was spent in composing which required writing at least one paragraph in length. Mechanical writing took place most frequently in math, science, and social studies classes with the paragraph length writing more frequently required in English. An important conclusion was that students and teachers regard any use of writing as "writing." This includes short answers where no more than one or two sentences are required, fill-in blanks and even copying sections of the textbook.

The Applebee study also revealed that teachers make little use of pre-writing activities. In fact, according to observers, typically teachers spent an average of three minutes giving instructions for the writing assignment after which students were expected to begin writing immediately. Generally student papers were collected at the conclusion of the assigned writing time, and only in English classes were students encouraged to revise. Finally, evaluation procedures were examined. Teachers reported that their primary method of teaching writing was done through comments on student papers. An examination of these, however, showed that 71 percent of teacher comments on student writing had to do with the errors in mechanics. Comments that responded to the ideas the students were expressing were routinely used by less than one-fifth of the teachers.

This brief summary of interdisciplinary writing research can provide little more than an overview of a few comprehensive studies. With the increasing viability of the topic, however, there are studies being done within content fields such as Geeslin's in math (1977) which focus more specifically upon the relationship between cognitive development and writing.

To date, interdisciplinary writing research has followed certain patterns—observation in classrooms (Applebee), teacher survey (Donlan, Applebee), an occasional student survey, or an analysis of papers for characteristics of the written product (Britton, et.al.). With the broad dimensions of interdisciplinary writing becoming more clearly defined by these studies, it seems appropriate to conclude by suggesting some possible future directions for this research.

One element clearly missing from this field is student centered research. In order to improve the uses of writing in all content areas, information is needed which will provide specific data as to how individual writers work within the constraints of the varying instructional contexts. In short, case studies of interdisciplinary writers are needed.

Secondly, experimental studies to determine the effect of using a process approach to writing within varying content areas should be undertaken. In the studies described above, little attention was given to pre-writing, drafting, or revision in any area other than English. Some attempt to determine the effectiveness of such an approach in other content areas should be studied.

Finally, many school districts are currently involved in some type of interdisciplinary writing program. Few have been assessed in any systematic way. This should be a major objective of interdisciplinary writing research in the coming months.

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Does Competition Destroy Self-Concept

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Much verbal debate surrounds the issue of competition versus cooperation in education. In some disciplines, tools suitable for assessing the results of rejection and acceptance are available, but other areas are void of the appropriate instruments. Art education is particularly lacking in assessment tools; inasmuch as art education differs from other subjects areas in methodology, it has a distinct reputation for encouraging freedom of thought and expression. According to Tollifson (1975), "The world is becoming dehumanized, the crying need is for a common feeling of mutual acceptance. No contest is the answer for education!" Other art educators blame this view for a decline in evaluation criteria in art classes. In some cases, they charge that work of meager quality still favors teacher approval, as long as its production was marked by enjoyment (Asch, 1976).

Lacking long range feasibility and a variety of acknowledged instruments to measure the effects of competition and win-lose situations, a project was devised to measure locus of control and attribution. This plan allowed research into the subtle relationships between art students' pre-contest internality, and, following the judging and its outcome, the entrants' perceptions of the contest results and their causes. These relationships between pre- and post-context perceptions were measured by three means: 1) a pretest of locus of control (Trent Attribution Profile), 2) an annual state-sponsored art exhibition (Tampa State Fair Art Show), and 3) a post-test attribution procedure developed by Gill and Cross in 1978. Locus of control is a measure of generalized expectancies for internal vs. external control of reinforcement. The degree to which a person perceives positive or negative events as being a consequence of one's own actions and thus personally controlled is internal locus of control.

On the other hand, external locus of control is the degree to which a person perceives positive or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behavior, and therefore, beyond person control (Schneider, 1977). Goodman (1978) believed high school students should be introduced to the competitive side of the real world because competition cannot be avoided in life situations.

The attribution theory (to what does the person attribute his success or failure in competition) can be traced back about ten years, and the concept of locus of control has been debated for approximately the last fifteen years, making both fairly new frontiers. Efforts to construct valid and reliable instruments to assess artistic learning are only very recent; thus, the instruments used in this research are psychologically, rather than artistically, oriented. However, the phenomenon of competition is related as early as in the 1400's in Vasari's *Lives of Artists* (Cardinale, 1977).

The theory that locus of control is positively correlated with internality (Churchill, 1976), that internals attribute both success and failure more to ability than do externals (Friedman, 1977) reinforces the belief that creative individuals possess an internal locus of control, but that having an internal locus of control does not necessarily imply creativity. Wong (1978) indicated that the Trent Attribution Profile could be used as an appropriate measure for providing separate scores of internality under success and failure conditions.

The independent or experimental variable was the competitive art event (Tampa State Fair Art Show) or the presumed cause; while the dependent variable was perceived in terms of the art entrants' scores on the Gill and Cross Attribution Questionnaire, the presumed effect. The design of the study involved students of five art teachers at a senior high school who were administered the Trent Attribution Profile as a pretest, with the same instrument administered as a post-test, following the acceptance or rejection of the students' art products at the Tampa State Fair Art Show. Data collection involved less than a week, so problems with concurrent events, maturation, and population attrition were minimized. Inasmuch as no control group was used, the experimental group (art students entering competition) was measured on the dependent variable (locus of

control) and given the experimental treatment (artwork judging). According to Turney (1971), the group is then measured on the same variable, and the comparison is made between the means on the two measurements.

On the TAP pretest, 40 of the 41 students involved credited ability and effort as dominant factors in their lives, thereby supporting Hypothesis 1; a significant majority of students entering the art competition possess an internal locus of control. On the Gill and Cross Attribution Questionnaire, the internal art students awarded ability and effort the most significance, thus supporting Hypothesis 2; students who have internal locus of control primarily attribute the outcome of the contest to specific internal causes. Hypothesis 3 was not justified inasmuch as only one student was involved.

The research in analyzing the effects of entering competition for art students in high school is still very minimal. The psychological outcomes of acceptance or rejection of art work for a show (based on a group of judges' opinions) on a purely objective basis may have lasting effects for an adolescent wrestling with positive and negative self-concept in other aspects of his life.

In addition to the state-sponsored contests, national scholarship contests are available to the students. These are even more definitive as to "winners" and "losers" because future schooling is frequently determined by the scholarship and money awards connected with them. One might suppose that age and maturity factors would reveal a subtle progression from more popular external attributions (powerful others, luck, task difficulty) to the internalized motivation expressed by these students, who seemed almost too willing to assume the blame for their rejection.

This study reasserts what locus of control literature has established: that creativity and internality are positively correlated. By focusing on a specific competitive even for high school art classes, it was confirmed that internals attribute outcomes more to themselves. Acceptance and rejection appear to be part of normal existence at this age. Therefore, the students did not seem to be diminished by their

rejection in the competition, but as they stated in their comments, "It is learning your faults and mistakes and realizing you must try again." With this attitude, the students would appear to be all winners.

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